

Applications of Geometric Algebra I

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3D Algebra

- 3D basis consists of 8 elements
- Represent lines, planes and volumes, from a common origin



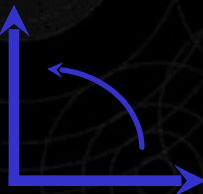
Grade 0
Scalar

1



Grade 1
Vector

e_1, e_2, e_3



Grade 2
Bivector

e_1e_2, e_2e_3, e_3e_1



Grade 3
Trivector

I

Algebraic Relations

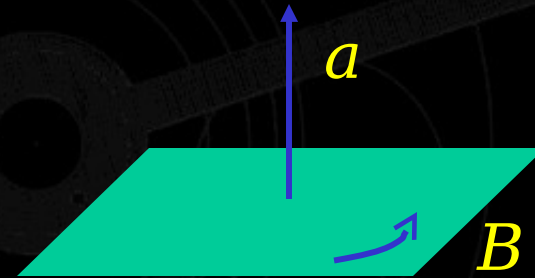
- Generators anticommute $e_1 e_2 = -e_2 e_1$
- Geometric product $ab = a \cdot b + a \wedge b$
- Inner product $a \cdot b = \frac{1}{2}(ab + ba)$
- Outer product $a \wedge b = \frac{1}{2}(ab - ba)$
- Bivector norm $|e_1 \wedge e_2|^2 = 1$
- Trivector $I = e_1 e_2 e_3$
- Trivector norm $I^2 = -1$
- Trivectors commute with all other elements

Lines and Planes

- Pseudoscalar gives a map between lines and planes

$$B \mapsto Ia$$

$$a \mapsto \perp IB$$



- Allows us to recover the vector (cross) product

$$a \wedge b \mapsto \perp Ia \wedge b$$

- But lines and planes are different
- Far better to keep them as distinct entities

Quaternions

- For the bivectors set

$$i \equiv e_2e_3, \quad j \equiv -e_3e_1, \quad k \equiv e_1e_2$$

- These satisfy the quaternion relations

$$i^2 \equiv j^2 \equiv k^2 \equiv ijk \equiv -1$$

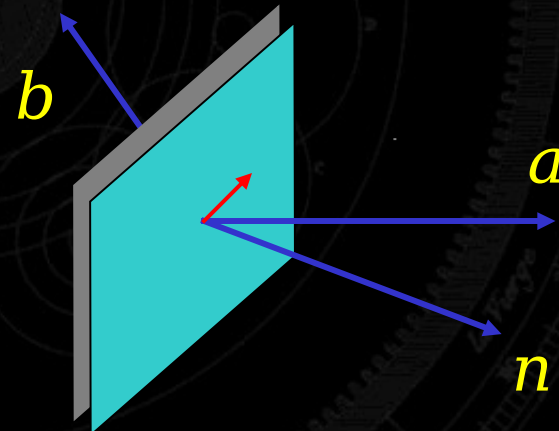
- So quaternions embedded in 3D GA
- Do not lose anything, but
 - Vectors and planes now separated
 - Note the minus sign!
 - GA generalises

Reflections

- Build rotations from reflections
- Good example of geometric product – arises in **operations**

$$a_{\perp} = [a \perp n]n$$

$$a_{\parallel} = a - [a \perp n]n$$



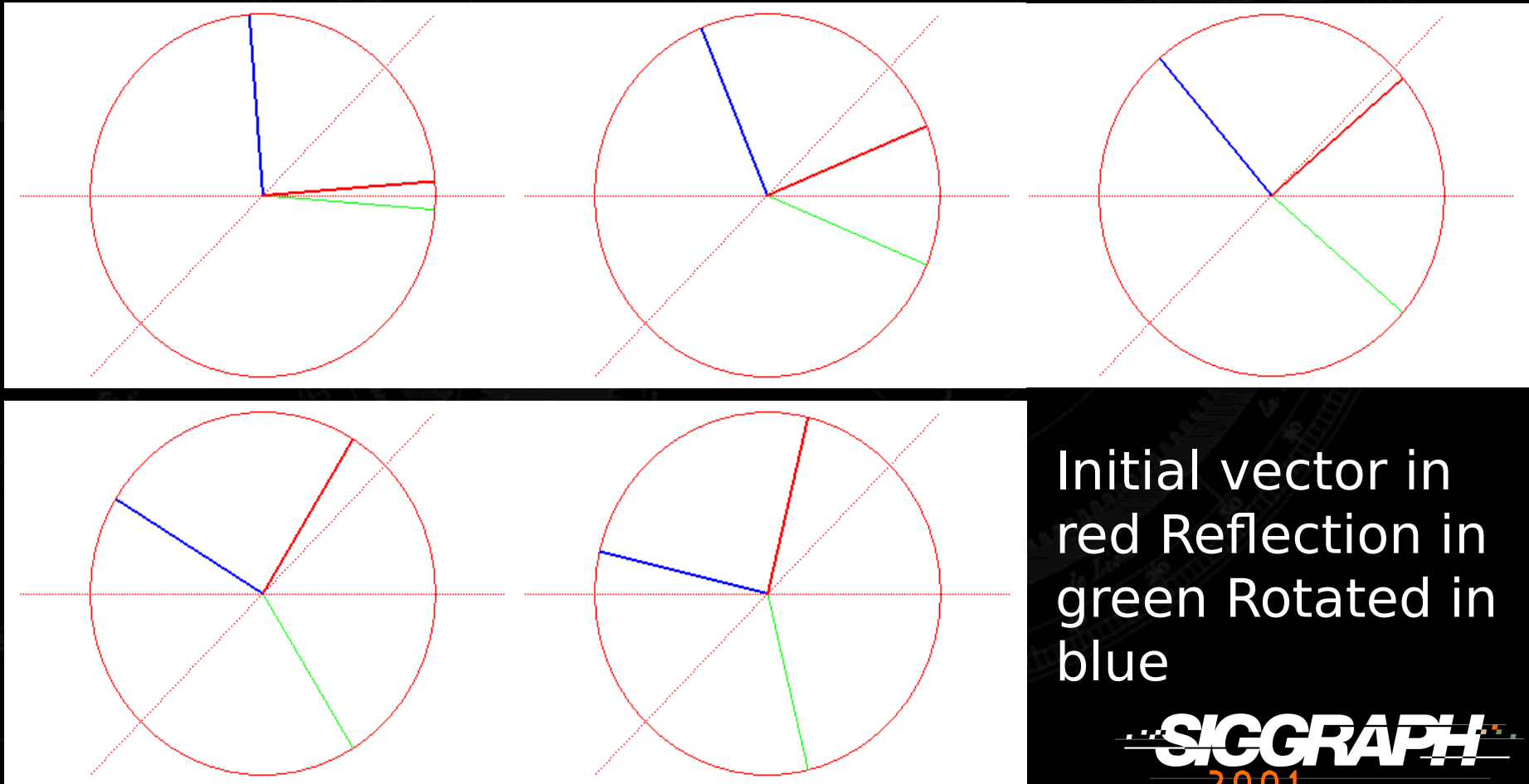
- Image of reflection is

$$b = a_{\perp} = a_{\perp} = a - 2[a \perp n]n$$

$$= a - [an]na = [nan]$$

Rotations

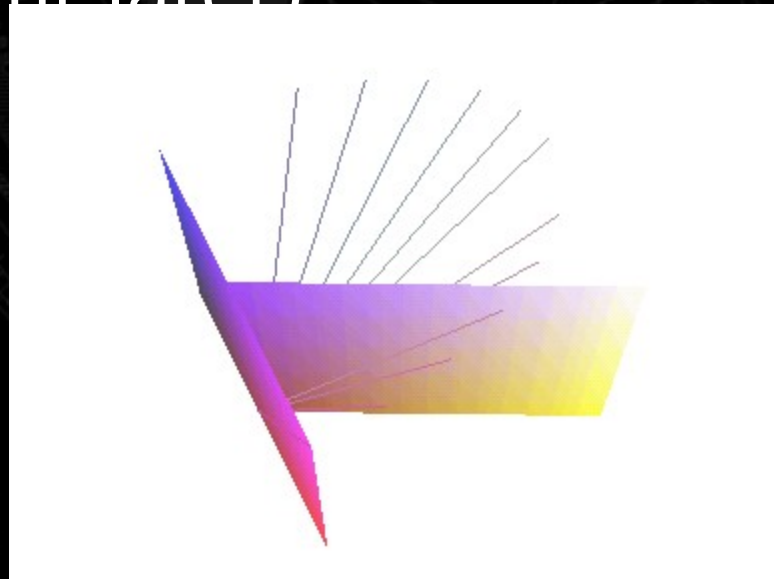
- 2 successive reflections give a rotation



Initial vector in
red Reflection in
green Rotated in
blue

Rotations

- Direction perpendicular to the two reflection vectors is unchanged
- So far, will only talk about rotations in a plane with a fixed origin (more general treatment later)



Algebraic Formulation

- Now look at the algebraic expression for a pair of reflections

$$a \mapsto m \circ n \circ m \mapsto m \circ a \circ m$$

- Define the **rotation** $R \mapsto m$
- Rotation encoded algebraically by

$$a \mapsto R \circ a \circ R \quad R \mapsto m$$

- Dagger symbol used for the **reverse**

Rotors

- Rotor is a geometric product of 2 unit vectors $R = mn \cos \theta = m \wedge n$
- Bivector has square $nm \cos \theta = -\sin^2 \theta$
- Used to the negative square $B = \frac{m \wedge n}{\sin \theta}$ by now!
- Introduce unit bivector
- Rotor now written $R = \cos \theta + \sin \theta B$

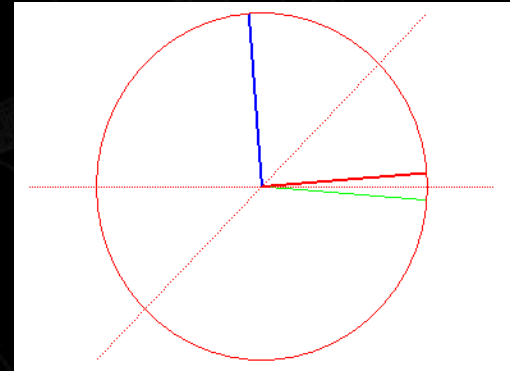
Exponential Form

- Can now write $R = \exp[iB]$
- But:
 - rotation was through **twice** angle between the vectors
 - Rotation went with orientation $m = m$
- Correct these, get double-sided, half-angle formula

$$a = RaR^\dagger$$

$$R = \exp[iB/2]$$

- Completely general!



Rotors in 3D

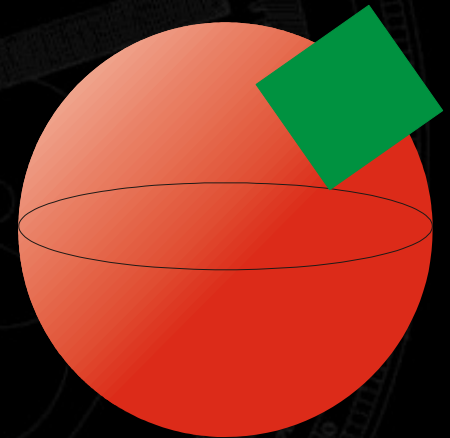
- Can rewrite in terms of an axis via

$$R = \exp\left[\frac{\theta}{2} \mathbf{In}\right]$$

- Rotors even grade (scalar + bivector in 3D)
- Normalised: $RR^\dagger = \mathbf{mnm} = 1$
- Reduces d.o.f. from 4 to 3 – enough for a rotation
- In 3D a rotor is a normalised, even element
- The same as a unit quaternion

Group Manifold

- Rotors are elements of a 4D space, normalised to 1
- They lie on a **3-sphere**
- This is the **group manifold**
- **Tangent space** is 3D
- Natural **linear** structure for rotors
- Rotors R and $-R$ define the same rotation
- Rotation group manifold is more complicated



Comparison

- Euler angles give a standard parameterisation of rotations

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos\alpha \cos\beta \mp \cos\alpha \sin\beta \sin\gamma & \mp \sin\alpha \cos\beta \mp \cos\alpha \sin\beta \cos\gamma & \sin\beta \sin\gamma \\ \cos\alpha \sin\beta \mp \cos\alpha \cos\beta \sin\gamma & \mp \sin\alpha \sin\beta \mp \cos\alpha \cos\beta \cos\gamma & \sin\beta \cos\gamma \\ \sin\alpha \sin\beta & \sin\alpha \cos\beta & \cos\alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

- Rotor form far easier

$$R = \exp[\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 / 2] \exp[\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 / 2] \exp[\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 / 2]$$

- But can do better than this anyway – work directly with the rotor element

Composition

- Form the compound rotation from a pair of successive rotations

$$a \mapsto R_2 \circ R_1 a R_1^{-1} \circ R_2^{-1}$$

- Compound rotor given by group combination law
 $R \mapsto R_2 R_1$
- Far more efficient than multiplying matrices
- More robust to numerical error
- In many applications can safely ignore the normalisation until the final step

Oriented Rotations

- Rotate through 2 different orientations
- Positive Orientation

$$R = \exp[\pi e_1 e_2 / 2]$$

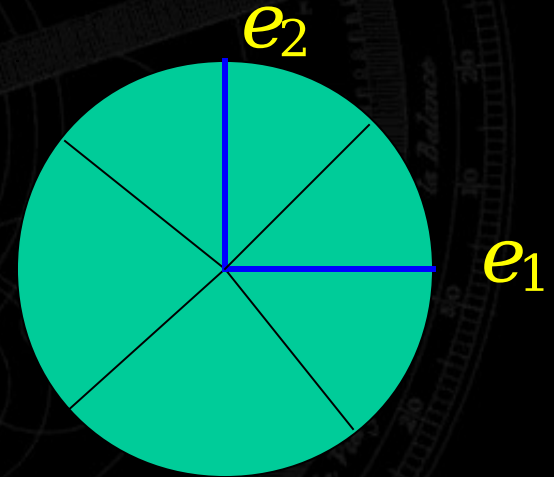
$$= \exp[\pi e_1 e_2 / 4]$$

- Negative Orientation

$$S = \exp[-\pi e_1 e_2 / 2]$$

$$= \exp[\pi e_1 e_2 3 / 4] = -R$$

- So R and $-R$ encode the same absolute rotation, but with different orientations



Lie Groups

- Every rotor can be written as $\exp \left[\frac{B}{2} \right]$
- Rotors form a continuous (Lie) group
- Bivectors form a **Lie algebra** under the commutator product
- **All** finite Lie groups are rotor groups
- **All** finite Lie algebras are bivector algebras
- (Infinite case not fully clear, yet)
- In conformal case (later) starting point of screw theory (Clifford, 1870s)!

Interpolation

- How do we interpolate between 2 rotations?
- Form path between rotors

$$R[0] = R_0$$

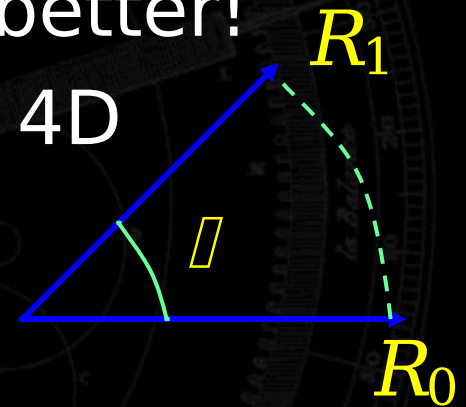
$$R[1] = R_1$$

$$R[t] = R_0 \exp[tB]$$

- Find B from $\exp[B] = R_0^{-1}R_1$
- This path is invariant. If points transformed, path transforms the same way
- Midpoint simply $R[1/2] = R_0 \exp[B/2]$
- Works for **all** Lie groups

Interpolation - SLERP

- For rotors in 3D can do even better!
- View rotors as unit vectors in 4D
- Path is a circle in a plane
- Use simple trig' to get SLERP



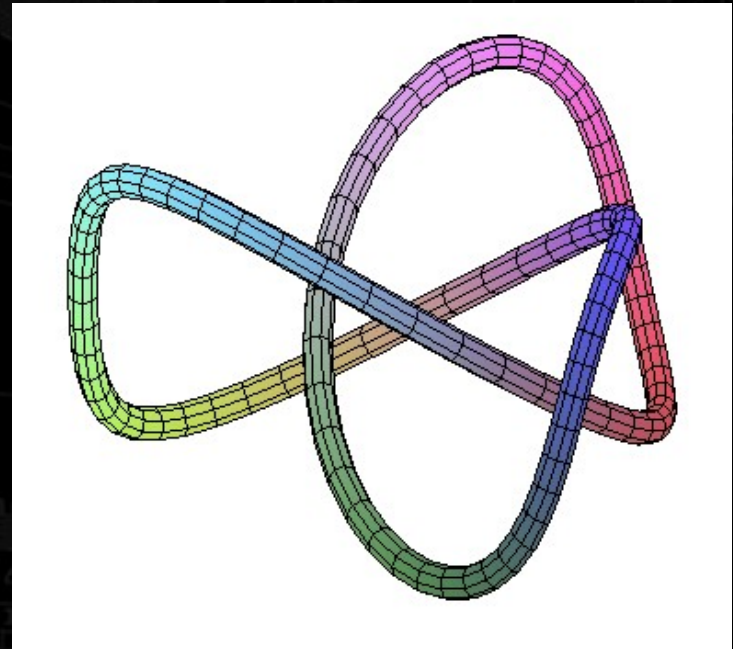
$$R[\theta] = \frac{1}{\sin[\theta]} [\sin[\theta] R_0 + \sin[\theta] R_1]$$

- For midpoint add the rotors and normalise!

$$R[1/2] = \frac{\sin[\theta/2]}{\sin[\theta]} [R_0 + R_1]$$

Applications

- Use SLERP with spline constructions for general interpolation
- Interpolate between series of rigid-body orientations
- Elasticity
- Framing a curve
- Extend to general transformations



Linearisation

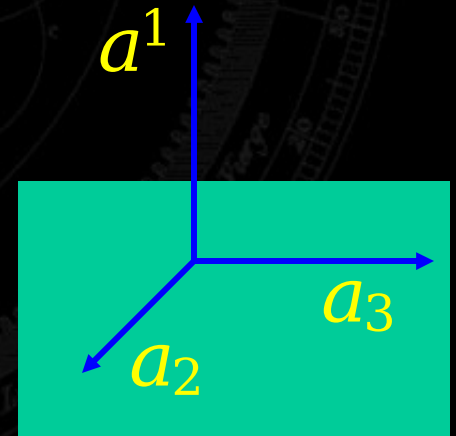
- Common theme is that rotors can **linearise** the rotation group, without approximating!
- Relax the norm constraint on the rotor and write
- ψ belongs to a linear space. Has a natural **calculus**.
- Very powerful in optimisation problems involving rotations
- Employed in computer vision algorithms

Recovering a Rotor

- Given two sets of vectors related by a rotation, how do we recover the rotor?
- Suppose $b_i \equiv Ra_iR^\dagger$
- In general, assume not orthogonal.
- Need reciprocal frame

$$a^1 \equiv \frac{a_2 \wedge a_3 I}{a_1 \wedge a_2 \wedge a_3 I}$$

- Satisfies $a^i \wedge a_j \equiv \delta_j^i$



Recovering a Rotor II

- Now form even-grade object

$$b_i a^i \wedge R a_i \wedge \wedge B a^i \wedge R \wedge \wedge B \wedge \wedge 1 \wedge \wedge R$$

- Define un-normalised rotor

$$\wedge \wedge b_i a^i \wedge 1$$

- Recover the rotor immediately now as

$$R \wedge \frac{\wedge \wedge}{|\wedge \wedge|}$$

- Very efficient, but
 - May have to check the sign
 - Careful with 180° rotations

Rotor Equations

- Suppose we take a path in rotor space $R(t)$
- Differentiating the constraint tells us that

$$\frac{d}{dt} [RR^T] = R^T R + RR^T = 0$$

- Re-arranging, see that

$$R^T R = -[R^T R]^{\wedge} = \text{Bivector}$$

- Arrive at **rotor equation**

$$\dot{R} = -\frac{1}{2}BR$$

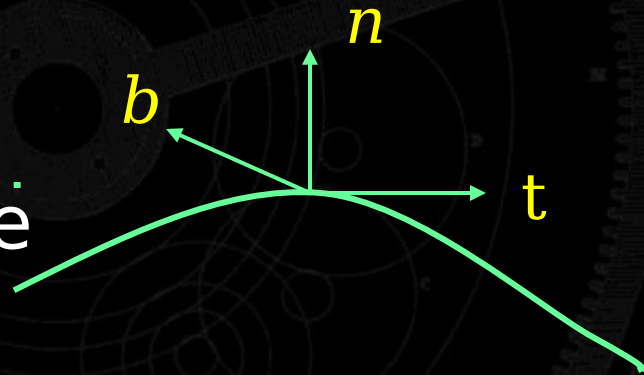
- This is totally general. Underlies the theory of **Lie groups**

Example

- As an example, return to framing a curve.

- Define Frenet frame

- Relate to fixed frame



- Rotor equation $R = \frac{1}{2} R$

- Rotor equation in terms of curvature and torsion

Linearisation II

- Rotor equations can be awkward (due to manifold structure)
- Linearisation idea works again
- Replace rotor with general element and write

$$\ddot{\varphi} = -\frac{1}{2}B\varphi$$

- Standard ODE tools can now be applied (Runge-Kutta, etc.)
- Normalisation of ψ gives useful check on errors

Elasticity

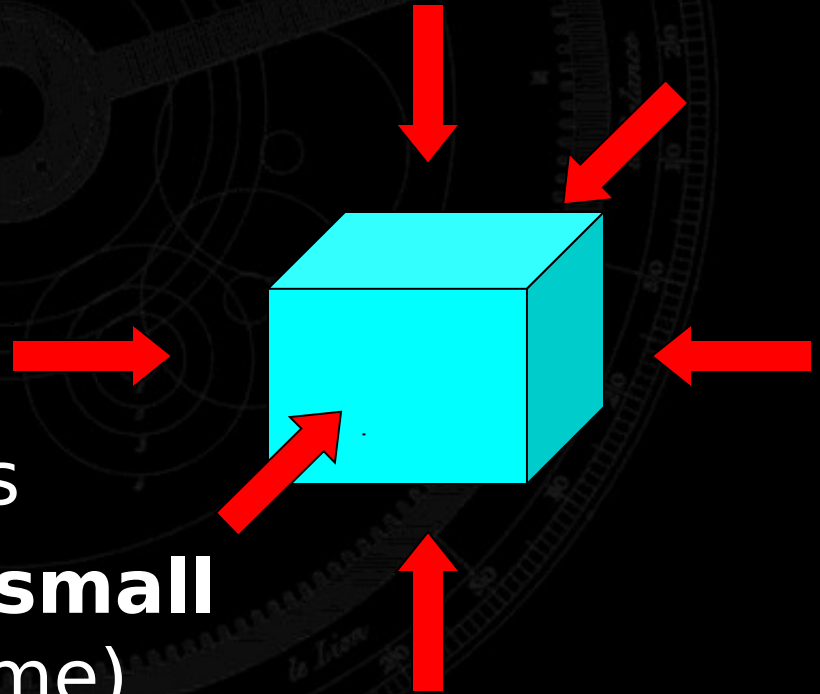
- Some basics of elasticity (solid mechanics):
 - When an object is placed under a **stress** (by stretching or through pressure) it responds by changing its shape.
 - This creates **strains** in the body.
 - In the linear theory stress and strain are related by the **elastic constants**.
 - An example is Hooke's law $F = -kx$, where k is the spring constant.
 - Just the beginning!

Bulk Modulus

- Place an object under uniform pressure P
- Volume changes by

$$\Delta P = B \frac{\Delta V}{V}$$

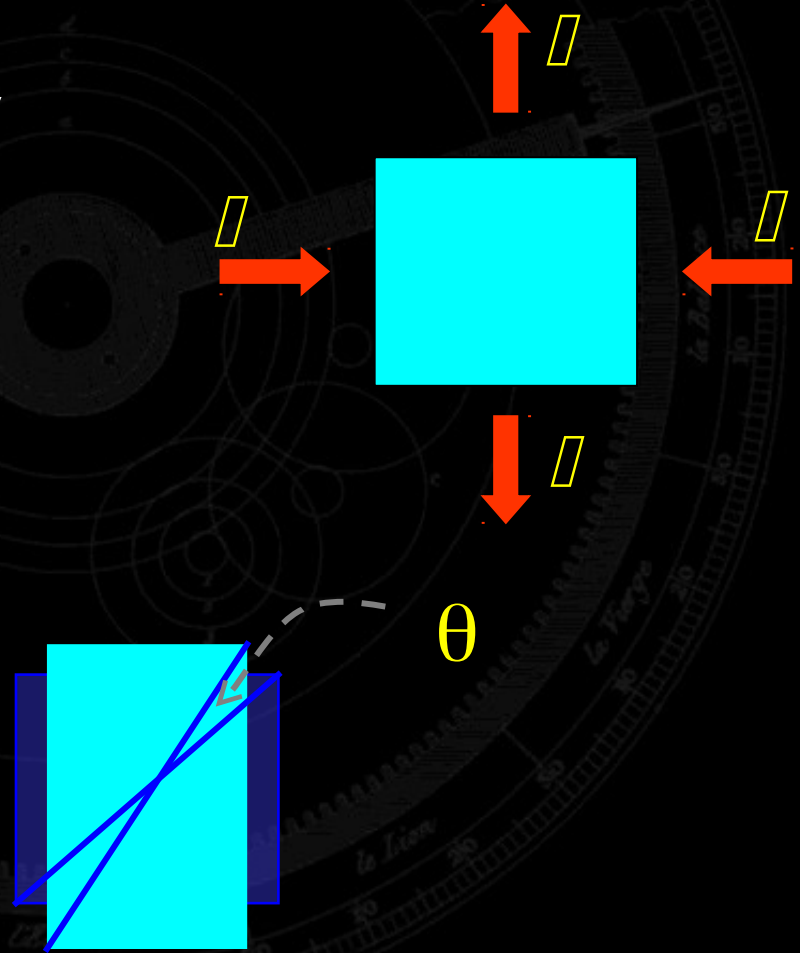
- B is the bulk modulus
- Definition applies for **small** pressures (linear regime)



Shear Modulus

- Shears produced by combination of tension and compression
- Shear modulus G is Shear stress / angle

$$G = \frac{\tau}{\theta}$$



LIH Media

- The simplest elastic systems to consider are **linear, isotropic** and **homogeneous** media.
- For these, B and G contain all the relevant information.
- There are many ways to extend this:
 - Go beyond the linearised theory and treat large deflections
 - Find simplified models for rods and shells

Foundations

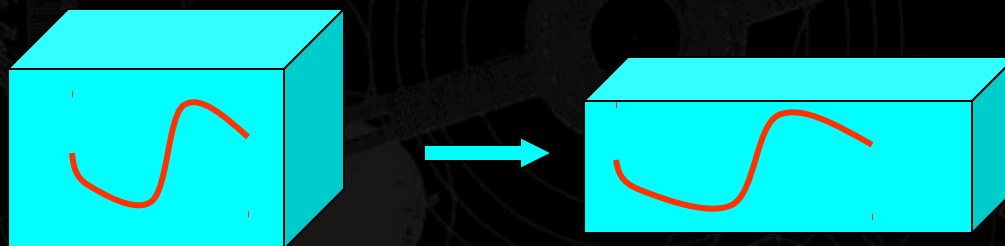
- Key idea is to relate the spatial configuration to a 'reference' copy.



- $y=f(x)$ is the **displacement** field. In general, this will be time-dependent as well.

Paths

- From $f(x)$ we want to extract information about the strains. Consider a path



- Tangent vectors map to
$$f'_x[a] = f'_x \circ F[a]$$
- $F(a) = F(a; x)$ is a linear function of a . Tells us about local distortions.

Path Lengths

- Path length in the reference body is

$$\int \left(\frac{dx}{d\tau} \right)^2 d\tau^{1/2}$$

- This transforms to

$$\int F(x) d\tau^{1/2}$$

- Define the function $G(a)$, acting entirely in the reference body, by

$$G(a) = \int F(a)$$

The Strain Tensor

- For elasticity, usually best to ‘pull’ everything back to the reference copy
- Use same idea for rigid body mechanics
- Define the strain tensor from $G(a)$
 - Most natural is

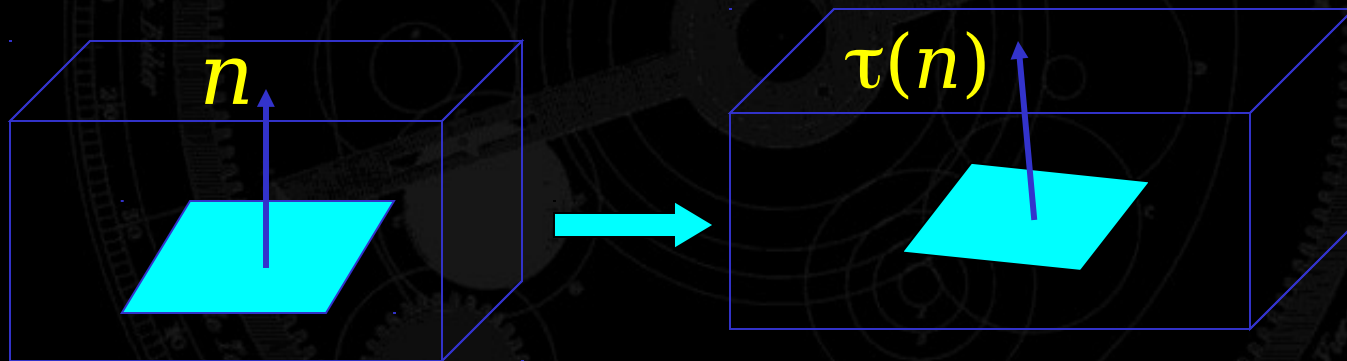
$$E[a] = \frac{1}{2} [G[a] - a]$$

- An alternative (rarely seen) is

$$E[a] = \frac{1}{2} \ln G[a]$$

The Stress Tensor

- Contact force between 2 surfaces is a linear function of the normal (Cauchy)



- $\tau(n) = \tau(n; x)$ returns a vector in the material body. 'Pull back' to reference copy to define $T_{ij} = F^{j1}_{i1} n_1$

Constitutive Relations

- Relate the stress and the strain tensors in the reference configuration
- Considerable freedom in the choice here
- The simplest, LHM media have

$$\mathbf{T}[\mathbf{a}] = 2G\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{a}] + \lambda \mathbf{B} = \frac{2}{3}G\mathbf{tr}[\mathbf{E}]\mathbf{a}$$

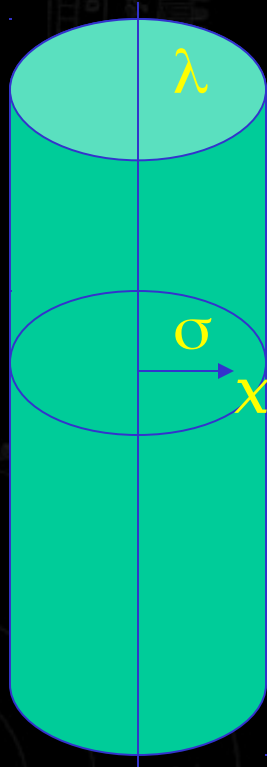
- Can build up into large deflections
- Combined with balance equations, get full set of dynamical equations
- Can get equations from an action principle

Problems

- Complicated, and difficult numerically
- In need of some powerful advanced mathematics for the full nonlinear theory (FEM...)
- Geometric algebra helps because it
 - is coordinate free
 - integrates linear algebra and calculus smoothly
- But need simpler models
- Look at models for rods and beams

Deformable Rod

- Reference configuration is a cylinder



Configuration
encoded in $y, x, \sigma, \theta, R, R^\perp$

Line of
centre
of mass

Technical Part

- Spare details, but:
- Write down an action integral
- Integrate out the coordinates over each disk
- Get (variable) **bending moments** along the centre line
- Carry out variational principle
- Get set of equations for the rotor field
- Can apply to static or dynamic configurations

Simplest Equations

- Static configuration, and ignore stretching
- Have rotor equation

$$\frac{dR}{d\theta} = -\frac{1}{2}R\mathbf{B}$$

- Find bivector from applied couple and elastic constants. $\mathbf{l}(\mathbf{B})$ is a known linear function of these mapping bivectors to bivectors

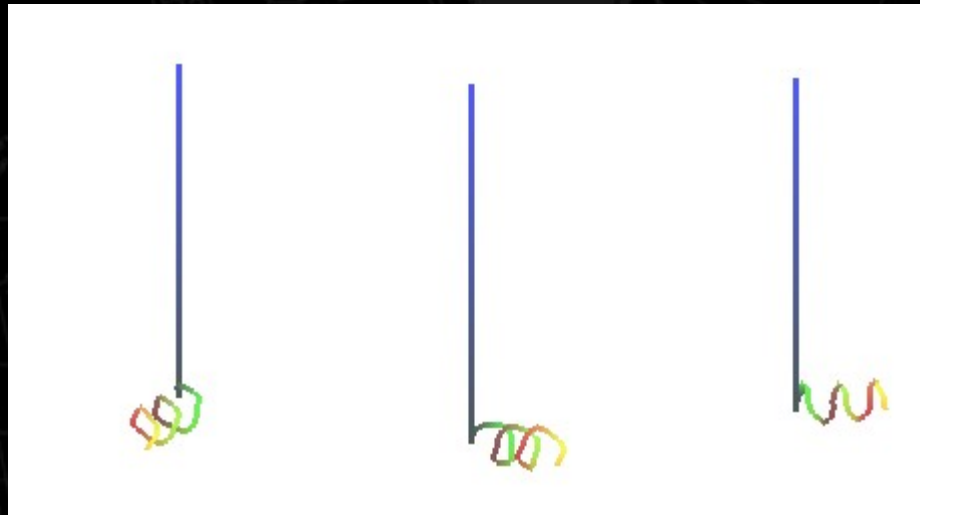
$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{l}^{-1}[\mathbf{R}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{R}]$$

- Integrate to recover curve

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Re}_1\mathbf{R}$$

Example

- Even this simple set of equations can give highly complex configurations!



Small, linear
deflections
build up to give
large
deformations

Summary

- Rotors are a general purpose tool for handling rotations in arbitrary dimensions
- Computationally more efficient than matrices
- Can be associated with a linear space
- Easy to interpolate
- Have a natural associated calculus
- Form basis for algorithms in elasticity and computer vision
- All this extends to general groups!

Further Information

- All papers on Cambridge GA group website:
www.mrao.cam.ac.uk/~clifford
- Applications of GA to computer science and engineering are discussed in the proceedings of the AGACSE 2001 conference.
www.mrao.cam.ac.uk/agacse2001
- IMA Conference in Cambridge, 9th Sept 2002
- 'Geometric Algebra for Physicists' (Doran + Lasenby). Published by CUP, soon.

Revised Timetable

- 8.30 – 9.15 Rockwood
Introduction and outline of geometric algebra
- 9.15 – 10.00 Mann
Illustrating the algebra I
- 10.00 -10.15 Break
- 10.15 – 11.15 Doran
Applications I
- 11.15 – 12.00 Lasenby
Applications II
- 1.30 – 2.00 Doran
Beyond Euclidean Geometry
- 2.00 – 3.00 Hestenes
Computational Geometry
- 3.00 – 3.15 Break
- 3.15 – 4.00 Dorst
Illustrating the algebra II
- 4.00 – 4.30 Lasenby
Applications III
- 4.30 Panel